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Le règne de Théodoric fut moins glorieux qu'on ne s'est plu à le dire sur la foi de ses panégyristes. Ce conquérant que quelques décrets promulgués pour la conservation des monuments de Rome et beaucoup de rhétorique ont fait considérer comme le restaurateur de la civilisation, ne fut que le chef heureux d'une armée victorieuse. Il ne comprit ni les circonstances, ni les hommes du milieu où l'avait placé le succès de ses armes et ne sut rien fonder de durable. . . . Quand, dans sa lutte contre Clovis, sa diplomatie se trouva vaine, le barbare reparut en lui ; il se contenta de partager avec les Francs le royaume d'Alaric dont il avait entrepris la défense. Quand il reconnut que des dissertations archéologiques, des éloges du passé et de belles promesses ne suffisaient point pour faire illusion aux Romains et aux catholiques, il n'eut plus souci de tous ses beaux principes ; ce fut en barbare qu'il agit aussitôt, par l'oppression et par la violence.

M. Martroye argues in several passages that the *Secret History* could not have been written by Procopius. His arguments are few and inconclusive. He is apparently unacquainted with the work done by Dahn, Panchenko, and Haury, whose arguments prove beyond reasonable doubt that Procopius was the author of the *Secret History*. Martroye's attitude on this subject is possibly the most striking illustration of his neglect of secondary work. He quotes at great length the speeches which Procopius attributed to various characters, arguing (p. 554), "Les discours que Procope prête aux généraux de l'armée impériale et à Totila, doivent être considérés comme ayant une valeur historique. Procope raconte des événements auxquels il a eu part et il a pu être très exactement renseigné, même au sujet des proclamations des chefs ennemis." This may be true, but it is always doubtful whether we ought to place much reliance in such rhetorical exercises, which are the commonplace of all classical historians. Martroye in the same note continues, "Quant aux discours qu'Agathias prête aux Goths, ils ne sont, peut-être, que des amplifications de rhétorique"; but he quotes the speeches of Agathias.

These points are criticized because the book is useful, but must be used with caution. It owes its chief importance, as the publishers state correctly in their advertisement "à l'emploi constant des sources originales". In this respect the book deserves great praise ; the narrative is formed almost entirely by weaving together the statements of the various authorities. Even when the author has formed his own opinion, as in the case of Theodoric, he is too honest to suppress the passages which conflict with this opinion. Consequently the volume is one to be consulted by every student of the period of the migrations.

DANA CARLETON MUNRO.

A History of England. By CHARLES M. ANDREWS, Professor of History in Bryn Mawr College. (Boston : Allyn and Bacon. 1903. Pp. xx, 588.)

It is the high merit of this work that it is at once a model text-book and a scholarly history of Great Britain. "If there be a form of historical writing supposedly peculiar to text-books," declares the author,

"I have made no effort to find it or to use it." To the progressive teacher these words are full of promise, for the mechanically compiled and artificially written text-book is becoming a positive hindrance to the use of right method in our schools. The teacher may rejoice in a book which is not ostentatiously written down to the youth's supposed capacity. The thin diet too often served is enervating to both pupil and teacher. The stronger meat that Professor Andrews has wisely provided will prove an intellectual tonic.

The apparatus of the book is very satisfactory. Besides the twenty genealogical tables, there are seventeen maps and seventy-four illustrations. The maps have been prepared with great care, and some of them are unique in character. Thus the sixth shows the territorial claims of England in France at seven epochs between 1154 and 1453; while the fifteenth, in three parts, discloses the extent of British India at the end of the Seven Years' War, in 1850, and at the present hour. The portraits of celebrated men and women and the pictures of contemporary things must, in the hands of the alert teacher, become a powerful adjunct to the narrative. But it is the bibliographical helps that will prove most fruitful in promoting right methods of study and teaching. Thus the foot-notes, besides the critical and other supplementary matter, contain systematic references to the source-books, which will encourage the use, at least as illustration, of the more important original documents in English history; while the references at the close of each chapter, affording a view of the choicest literature of each epoch, will give a deeper and broader meaning to historical study. Indeed, without the two elements of sources and bibliography, the problems of history will be pretty sure to elude the reader's attention; and the "conversion of narrative into problems" is the very soul of scientific historical teaching.

The book covers the history, not merely of England in connection with Scotland and Ireland, but also that of the Indian and colonial empire. Special stress is laid upon institutions and upon social and industrial conditions. The text is divided into thirteen chapters, the first four of which deal with the period before the Norman conquest. The author has done well in devoting a distinct chapter to "Anglo-Saxon Institutions", thus gaining unity and emphasis for his treatment. The results of recent research are cautiously utilized, especially in the enlightening discussion of the land system. In this chapter as elsewhere, on disputed points Professor Andrews has decided opinions and does not hesitate to express them. Thus we are told that "The word *shire* is not derived from *share*, as is frequently asserted"; and that the *tūn* or *vill* "had no political importance", being "rarely mentioned in the laws".

The entire treatment of the subject is remarkably uniform and well balanced. Everywhere it reveals the hand, not of a compiler, but of a scholar who writes from the sources, with a full knowledge of the monographic literature. Here there is of course space only for a passing notice of a few typical passages. In the fifth chapter, devoted to the Norman conquest, one is at once attracted by the discussion of William's feudal

land system, whose peculiar features are knight-service, scattered holdings of the great vassals, and the oath of allegiance to the king as their chief lord exacted from all landholders. Through the oath at Salisbury in 1086 "William violated the recognized feudal principle that a vassal owed allegiance to his immediate lord only. But he could do this without danger, because as king he was able to enforce a rule that as feudal lord he would hardly have dared to make." Regarding the other means for preventing "feudalism in England from developing its worst aspects, — the territorial independence of great lords, and private war" — the author declares, contrary to the usual teaching, that the scattering of estates "was due not to any design of the Conqueror, but to the slowness of the conquest". The reigns of Henry III. and Edward I. are discussed in the seventh chapter. The good work of the friars, the career of Simon, the rise of Parliament, and especially the great statutes of Edward receive the attention which they deserve. So likewise in the next chapter industrial and social conditions — the Black Death and its economic results, the manorial system, the work of Wycliffe, and the Peasant Revolt — are given the relative space which the modern student requires. For the concise account of the peasant rising recent investigations have been faithfully used, especially the notable researches of Dr. Kriehn.

A conservative view is taken of Cromwell's place in history. The ordinances for the reorganization and strengthening of the kingdom show him "to have been a statesman of large powers". But he "cannot be called a great statesman, because he did not consistently plan for the future, and because he did not adapt his government to the wishes of the people of all England. . . . His experiments in constitutional government were a failure, because they were made in the interest of the Puritan party and never of the nation." This last statement will scarcely be accepted as axiomatic by all students of Cromwell's work. It is true that his legal and constitutional reforms were undone at the Restoration; but, whether or not they prove that Cromwell was a great statesman, they should receive even more relative attention than Dr. Andrews has given them, if the real significance of the Puritan Revolution would be understood. The measures even of the despised Barebone — not "Barebones" — Parliament are worthy of serious study. It was that body, for instance, which adopted the Civil Marriage Act of 1653, an ordinance of extraordinary interest, anticipating the essential features of the civil marriage laws now existing in England and the United States.

In the discussion of the British policy toward the American colonies we are told that the "more excitable of the colonial orators raised the cry of 'no taxation without representation'; but it is hard to see what good could have been done by a few men elected in the colonies and sent three thousand miles to sit in a parliament that was thoroughly corrupt and represented no one except the men who bought the votes of the electors." This statement is not helpful, if it is meant to suggest that such was the real aspect which the problem of taxation took in the minds of the majority of the leaders of the Revolution, although at first Benja-

min Franklin was the chief of the "excitable" orators who favored a plan of American representation in Parliament. Again, it is asserted that from the time of the Revolution onward the "old colonial system, characterized by navigation acts and restrictive measures, ceased to exist in fact, though not in law. This change came about, not because of any lesson taught by the American Revolution, but because the old system had outlived its usefulness." It is indeed marvelous if the loss of an American empire had no decisive influence in demonstrating to the English people the uselessness of the old colonial system.

Strong as is this book in dealing with institutions and social questions, one could wish that somewhat more space had been given to them in the modern period. The present forms of local organization and administration and the rise of the system of cabinet-parliamentary government are not considered. A chapter on existing institutions would have been the natural complement of the one on that subject for the Anglo-Saxon period. Moreover, the struggle for the emancipation of workers in mines and factories deserves more than a passing remark; and the great services of the seventh earl of Shaftesbury are as worthy of notice as those of Bright, Cobden, or Russell.

These shortcomings, if they be shortcomings—due doubtless to economy of space—must not be suffered to conceal the great merit of this book. It is written in a simple and pleasing style; and the narrative is so closely knit, following the natural evolution of the subject, that the attention of the reader never flags. It is what not many text-books are—a real contribution to historical literature; and it should prove a powerful influence in advancing the scientific study of English history in the high-school and the college.

GEORGE ELLIOTT HOWARD.

The Mediaeval Stage. By E. K. CHAMBERS. (Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: Henry Frowde. 1903. Two vols., pp. xlii, (2), 419; v, (3), 480.)

THIS work has to do with acting rather than with literature; it is a history of the stage, not a history of drama. The period is the rather late mediæval extended even through the sixteenth century. Its actual scope is more English than general in spite of the very full illustrative material from other lands with which the author leads up to his English theme. The standpoint is neither that of the playwright nor of the player, but of the folklorist and student of customs.

The text is divided into four books; on minstrelsy, folk drama, religious drama, and the interlude. More than half the space is given to the folk drama and more than half the remainder to the religious drama. A thirty-page list of authorities and a number of valuable appendixes take up about one-fourth of the work.

Under minstrelsy the author touches on the complete downfall of the theaters through ecclesiastical hostility and barbarian indifference. He goes on to show that the popular love of spectacles nevertheless endured, as is shown by the flourishing state of minstrelsy. He shows further that